

Two-dimensional device simulation program: 2DP

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Mathematical details of a two-dimensional semiconductor device simulation program are presented. Applicability of the carrier transport model to shallow junction bipolar transistors is discussed. Use of this program to optimize device structures in new bipolar technology is illustrated by presenting calculated device characteristics for variations in a few selected process conditions. Software links that automatically transfer data from a two-dimensional process simulation program and to a quasi-three-dimensional device equivalent circuit model generation program are also discussed.

1. Introduction

With the rapid advances in semiconductor technology over the past several decades, the number of devices and circuits per chip is increasing at a remarkable rate. In the present era of very large scale integration, it is becoming increasingly important to use computer-aided semiconductor device analysis and design to shorten the technology design cycle, improve accuracy of design, and reduce design cost. This paper presents details of a mathematical model based on semiconductor device physics that predicts device characteristics so that the output can be used for their equivalent circuit representation. Such predictive models are the only tools available in the early phases of technology development for device and process optimization. However,

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to be useful it is important that these mathematical models accurately reflect the characteristics of current devices and are capable of analyzing future devices with shrinking dimensions.

An accompanying paper [1] has introduced our mathematical models for process and device simulations and their use in bipolar technology development. The two-dimensional device simulation program described here, 2DP, has evolved to its present form over the last ten years [2-6]. It has been developed as a general-purpose analysis program for semiconductor devices (including merged structures) and has been especially optimized for steady state bipolar structures. An interactive user-oriented program has been developed to automatically create the geometry, doping profile, terminal bias, and other control parameters required as input to the program. Software links have also been developed to automatically receive doping profiles generated by the two-dimensional process simulation program SAFEPRO [7] and to automatically transfer 2DP predicted device terminal characteristics and internal behavior required for equivalent circuit modeling to the model generation program MGP [8].

The physical effects of heavy doping, hot carrier, and velocity overshoot are becoming increasingly important as devices are scaled down to the submicrometer range. For example, as the emitter size of a bipolar transistor becomes smaller, the transistor is operated in a high-injection range due to increased current density, and consequently the device current gain becomes sensitive to heavy doping effects due to carrier-carrier interactions [6]. Review and verification of semiconductor physics and material parameters as modeled in 2DP are an ongoing effort. Device characteristics predicted by 2DP have been verified with measured terminal characteristics on various types of semiconductor devices [5, 6]. Hot carrier and velocity overshoot of carriers in the collector depletion region have

been simulated in one dimension by modifying the semiconductor transport equations [9]. This velocity overshoot effect does not significantly affect the predicted device terminal characteristics of the bipolar transistors discussed in this paper. The applicability of the semiconductor transport equations used in 2DP for the analysis of the shallow junction bipolar transistors considered in this paper has also been established by an alternate modeling approach [10]. Monte Carlo simulation of carrier transport shows that predicted device terminal characteristics increase by no more than 5% due to the velocity overshoot effect.

Section 2 describes the semiconductor device equations and silicon material parameters used in 2DP. Numerical techniques used to solve the mathematical equations and boundary conditions used are also discussed. Use of this program to analyze and optimize bipolar technology devices is presented in Section 3.

2. Model

The set of equations used to simulate steady state carrier transport in bipolar transistors is as follows:

$$F_\psi = \nabla^2 \psi + \frac{q}{\epsilon} (p - n + N_D - N_A) = 0, \quad (1)$$

$$F_n = \nabla J_n + q(G - R) = 0, \quad (2)$$

$$F_p = \nabla J_p - q(G - R) = 0, \quad (3)$$

with auxiliary equations

$$J_n = -q\mu_n n \nabla \phi_n,$$

$$J_p = -q\mu_p p \nabla \phi_p,$$

$$n = n_{i0} \exp[\Delta E_c/kT] \cdot \exp[q(\psi - \phi_n)/kT], \quad (6)$$

$$p = p_{i0} \exp[\Delta E_v/kT] \cdot \exp[q(\phi_p - \psi)/kT], \quad (7)$$

$$n_{ie}^2 = n_{i0} \cdot p_{i0} \cdot \exp[\Delta E_g/kT], \quad (8)$$

$$R = R_{SRH} + R_{AUGER}, \quad (9)$$

$$R_{SRH} = (pn - n_{ie}^2)/[\tau_{n0}(p + n_{ie}) + \tau_{p0}(n + n_{ie})], \quad (10)$$

$$R_{AUGER} = (A_n n + A_p p)(pn - n_{ie}^2), \quad (11)$$

$$G = [\alpha_n(E)|J_n| + \alpha_p(E)|J_p|]/q, \quad (12)$$

$$E = -\nabla \psi. \quad (13)$$

Heavy doping effects are taken into account by the Auger recombination term R_{AUGER} and a correction to the intrinsic carrier concentration n_i , as given in (8). ΔE_g in (8) is the "effective bandgap narrowing" which takes into account heavy doping effects such as band tailing, many-body effects, and Fermi-Dirac statistics. Bandgap narrowing parameters, as well as mobility, lifetime parameters, and ionization rates that are assumed in the model, are discussed in the next section.

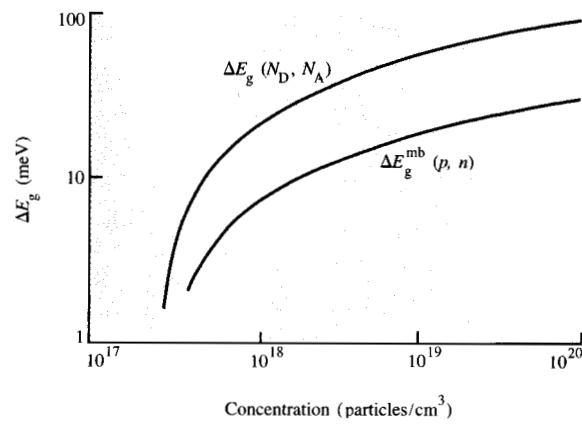


Figure 1

Bandgap narrowing vs concentration. Upper curve is an empirical relation for the total band gap narrowing (ΔE_g). Lower curve is band-gap narrowing due to many-body effects.

Material parameters

Effective bandgap narrowing is taken to be a function of impurity doping and carrier concentration [6] as given by the following expressions:

$$\Delta E_g = \Delta E_c + \Delta E_v, \quad (14)$$

$$\Delta E_c = \Delta E_c^{bt}(N_D) + \Delta E_c^{bt}(N_A) + \Delta E_c^{mb}(p), \quad (15)$$

$$\Delta E_v = \Delta E_v^{bt}(N_D) + \Delta E_v^{bt}(N_A) + \Delta E_v^{mb}(n), \quad (16)$$

where ΔE_c is the shift in conduction band energy and ΔE_v is the shift in valence band energy. Superscripts bt and mb in (15)–(16) denote band edge shrinkage due to band tailing and many-body effects, respectively. Details of this bandgap narrowing model have been described elsewhere [6]. Briefly, band edge shrinkage due to band tailing is taken to be a function of doping concentration N_D or N_A , while many-body terms consist of an upward shift of valence band due to hole-electron interactions and a downward shift of conduction band due to electron-hole interactions. Figure 1 shows total bandgap narrowing as a function of doping concentration as it is assumed in this model. Figure 1 also shows the contribution of the many-body terms to the total bandgap shrinkage in the equilibrium condition. This modification to the previous bandgap narrowing model [5] was found necessary for more accurate prediction of transistor current gain at high injection levels.

Various models for carrier mobilities are available in the literature. The mobility model selected here gives the best results when evaluated with hardware consisting of a variety of profiles and geometries. In this model hole mobility μ_p and electron mobility μ_n are taken to be a function of doping ($N = N_D + N_A$) and normalized temperature (T_n) [11] as

given by the following expressions:

$$\mu_p = 54.3 T_n^{-0.57} + \frac{407 T_n^{-2.23}}{1 + \left(\frac{N}{2.35 \cdot 10^{17} T_n^{2.4}} \right)^{0.88 \cdot T_n^{-0.146}}} \quad (17)$$

$$\mu_n = 88 T_n^{-0.57} + \frac{1252 T_n^{-2.23}}{1 + \left(\frac{N}{1.26 \cdot 10^{17} T_n^{2.4}} \right)^{0.88 \cdot T_n^{-0.146}}} \quad (18)$$

The electric field (E) dependence of the mobility [12] is taken into account by the following expression:

$$\mu = \frac{\mu_0(N, T_n)}{\left[1 + \left(\frac{E}{E_c} \right)^{\beta} \right]^{1/\beta}}, \quad (19)$$

where

$$\beta = 1.213,$$

$$E_c = \frac{8.34 \cdot 10^6 T_n^{-0.52}}{\mu_0} \text{ for holes,}$$

$$E_c = \frac{1.07 \cdot 10^7 T_n^{-0.87}}{\mu_0} \text{ for electrons,}$$

and where μ_0 in (19) is the low field mobility value of Eq. (17) or (18).

Lifetime parameters τ_{n0} and τ_{p0} in the Shockley-Read-Hall recombination term R_{SRH} (10) are taken to be equal to 1.0×10^{-6} sec and constant all over the device. Parameters A_n and A_p in the Auger recombination term R_{AUGER} (11) are taken to be equal to 1.4×10^{-31} cm⁶/sec and 9.9×10^{-32} cm⁶/sec, respectively. Electron and hole ionization rates are taken from [13].

• Numerical technique

Equations (1)–(3) with the auxiliary equations (4)–(19) are solved in two dimensions by the finite difference method. Two approaches have been discussed in the literature to solve the above equations. The first approach [2, 3] is to solve (1)–(3) separately for variables ψ , n , and p using an algorithm introduced by Gummel [14] as follows:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \psi} F_\psi(\psi^k, n^k, p^k) \Delta \psi^{k+1} = -F_\psi, \quad (20)$$

$$\psi^{k+1} = \psi^k + \Delta \psi^k, \quad (21)$$

$$\tilde{n}^k = n^k \cdot \exp[q \Delta \psi^{k+1} / kT], \quad (22)$$

$$\tilde{p}^k = p^k \cdot \exp[-q \Delta \psi^{k+1} / kT], \quad (23)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial n} F_n(\psi^{k+1}, \tilde{n}^k, \tilde{p}^k) \Delta n^{k+1} = -F_n, \quad (24)$$

$$n^{k+1} = \tilde{n}^k + \Delta n^{k+1}, \quad (25)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial p} F_p(\psi^{k+1}, n^{k+1}, \tilde{p}^k) \Delta p^{k+1} = -F_p, \quad (26)$$

$$p^{k+1} = \tilde{p}^k + \Delta p^{k+1}, \quad (27)$$

where ψ^k , n^k , p^k denote starting values and ψ^{k+1} , n^{k+1} , p^{k+1} are the updated values. $\tilde{n}$ and $\tilde{p}$ are electron and hole concentrations updated for the change in the potential. This method shows a linear convergence.

The second approach [15, 16] is to solve (1)–(3) simultaneously in a quadratically convergent Newton scheme as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F_\psi}{\partial \psi} & \frac{\partial F_\psi}{\partial n} & \frac{\partial F_\psi}{\partial p} \\ \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial \psi} & \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial n} & \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial p} \\ \frac{\partial F_p}{\partial \psi} & \frac{\partial F_p}{\partial n} & \frac{\partial F_p}{\partial p} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \Delta \psi^{k+1} \\ \Delta n^{k+1} \\ \Delta p^{k+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -F_\psi \\ -F_n \\ -F_p \end{bmatrix}. \quad (28)$$

Although this approach requires much more computer storage and run time for each loop, it has been shown to converge faster for high injection bias conditions [16].

The diagonal part of (28) is the loop given by Eqs. (20), (24), and (26). The terms $(\partial F_n / \partial \psi) \Delta \psi^{k+1}$ and $(\partial F_p / \partial \psi) \Delta \psi^{k+1}$ of (28) are Eqs. (22) and (23). The terms $\partial F_n / \partial p$ and $\partial F_p / \partial n$ are mainly electron-hole recombination and generation terms, which are usually small in shallow junction devices. Therefore, to improve the convergence of the first approach without increasing computer storage requirements makes it necessary to approximate the terms $(\partial F_\psi / \partial n) \Delta n^{k+1} = -(q/e) \Delta n^{k+1}$ and $(\partial F_\psi / \partial p) \Delta p^{k+1} = (q/e) \Delta p^{k+1}$ of Eq. (28). This requires a prediction of Δn^{k+1} and Δp^{k+1} before solving (20) for $\Delta \psi^{k+1}$.

We have used the "Gummel" method to solve (1)–(3) with the following modifications to improve speed. As the solution is approached and the relative change in n and p at various grid points becomes small, Eqs. (25) and (27) are replaced by the following equations:

$$n^{k+1} = \tilde{n}^k + C \Delta n^{k+1}, \quad (29)$$

$$\Delta n^{k+1} = \Delta n^{k+1} + C \Delta n^k, \quad (30)$$

$$p^{k+1} = \tilde{p}^k + C \Delta p^{k+1}, \quad (31)$$

$$\Delta p^{k+1} = \Delta p^{k+1} + C \Delta p^k, \quad (32)$$

where C is a constant which is optimized for best convergence. Formulas (30) and (32) determine the prediction for a new n^{k+2} , p^{k+2} for use in (20) by extrapolation using the previous change in n and p . **Figure 2** shows the convergence improvement in a high injection bias solution for an npn transistor for various values of the parameter C . Values of $C = 0.4$ and 0.5 have been taken as default values for Eqs. (30) and (32), respectively.

• Boundary conditions

Values of variables ψ , n , and p or their normal derivatives are specified at the boundary of a two-dimensional region of analysis. Both ohmic and Schottky metal-semiconductor

contacts can be specified. At an ideal ohmic contact, carrier concentration is specified by the thermal equilibrium values [2, 3]. Boundary conditions for a Schottky contact on n-type silicon include the following thermionic emission boundary conditions for both electrons and holes:

$$J_n = (A_n^{**} T^2 / N_c)(n - n_0), \quad (33)$$

$$J_p = (A_p^{**} T^2 / N_v)(p - p_0), \quad (34)$$

where A_n^{**} and A_p^{**} are the effective Richardson constants for electrons and holes; n , p and n_0 , p_0 are the actual and zero bias surface concentrations of electrons and holes; and N_c and N_v are the effective density of states in the conduction and valence bands, respectively. The surface electrostatic potential is fixed by the Schottky barrier to be

$$\psi = \phi_M - |\phi_B| + \frac{1}{2} |E_g|, \quad (35)$$

where ϕ_M is the metal Fermi energy, ϕ_B the barrier height, and E_g the bandgap energy.

Boundary conditions for a polysilicon-silicon interface are incorporated by a finite surface recombination velocity of minority carriers. The surface recombination velocity is introduced to simulate polysilicon-silicon interface properties and polysilicon and silicon material parameters. Its value is therefore technology-dependent. The effect of finite surface recombination velocity is numerically to modify the boundary condition for minority carriers at the contact. For an npn transistor with a polysilicon emitter contact, the hole boundary condition at the polysilicon emitter contact is specified by

$$p(x=0) = \frac{J_p}{qS_p} + \frac{n_{ie}^2}{n(x=0)}, \quad (36)$$

where J_p is the hole current density, n_{ie} is the intrinsic carrier concentration, $x=0$ is the emitter polysilicon-silicon interface, and S_p is the hole surface recombination velocity at the polysilicon-silicon interface. The default value of the parameter S_p is taken as 3×10^4 cm/sec based on our technology.

• Specification of doping profile: link with SAFEPRO

The impurity doping profile and a two-dimensional geometry are required as input parameters for a 2DP run. Impurity doping profiles can be specified as one-dimensional profiles with associated windows. 2DP then calculates the doping profile on a two-dimensional grid using an analytical expression for elliptical fit with a specified ratio of lateral to vertical diffusion depths. Two-dimensional doping profiles of arsenic and boron impurities from a SAFEPRO run [7] can also be used for a 2DP analysis by using a software link to interpolate the doping profile from the triangular finite element grid of SAFEPRO to the rectangular finite difference grid of 2DP.

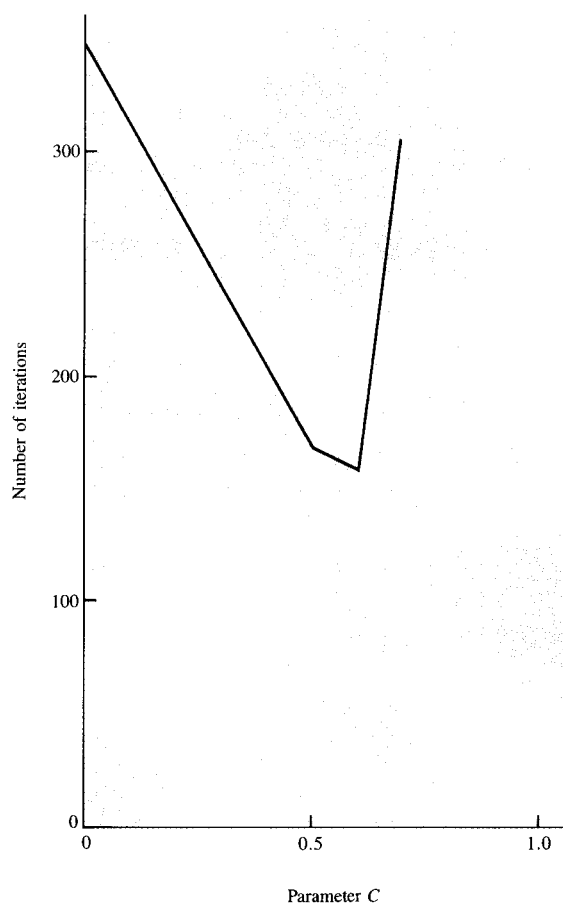


Figure 2

Number of iterations for a fixed convergence in a shallow base npn transistor simulation at high injection ($V_{BE} = 0.9$ V) bias conditions as a function of the parameter C .

Figure 3 shows a two-dimensional region of a 2DP analysis for a polysilicon-emitter, polysilicon-base npn transistor. An available arsenic and boron profile window from a SAFEPRO run is also shown in Fig. 3. The software link program takes the (X_{ref}, Y_{ref}) point as a reference and linearly interpolates the logarithm of the doping from the SAFEPRO grid to 2DP grid points. The doping profile for grid points outside the SAFEPRO window, as well as the collector profile not specified by the SAFEPRO run, is also specified by this link program. A user-oriented interactive program, with plotting capability, has been developed to specify doping profiles, grid points, and terminal bias information for 2DP analysis.

• 2DP output

For a specified bias condition, the 2DP output on a printer, terminal, or dataset consists of an input parameter listing, the detailed device internal behavior at the grid points, and

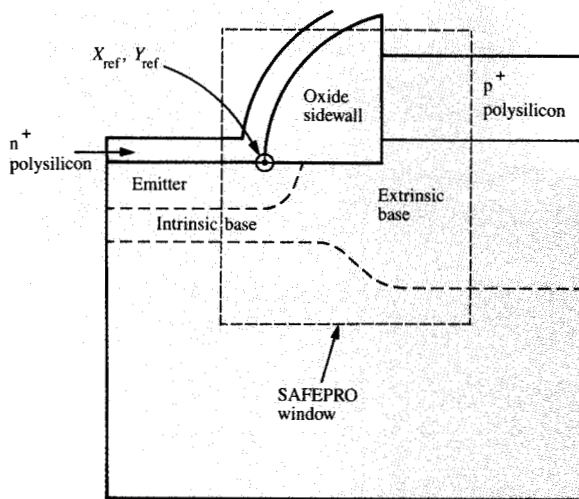


Figure 3

The two-dimensional region of analysis for a polysilicon-emitter, polysilicon-base npn transistor. The box indicates the portion of the two-dimensional profile simulated by the SAFEPRO process simulation program.

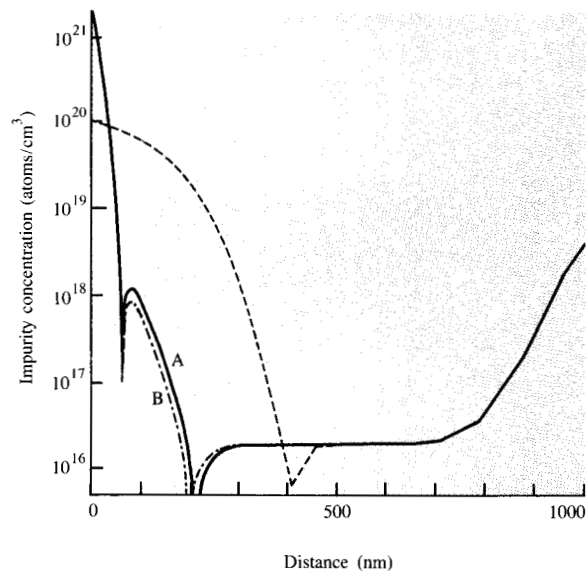


Figure 4

Vertical doping profiles for the nominal process (profile A) and 30% reduction in the intrinsic base implant dose (profile B).

currents in bottom and sidewall regions, are included in the output; these are used for device equivalent circuit model construction.

If specified by the user, capacitance calculations for an npn transistor are included in the analysis after the dc solution for specified V_{BE} and V_{BC} operating conditions according to the following relations:

$$C_{BE} = \frac{\partial Q_h}{\partial V_{BE}} \bigg|_{V_{BC}} = \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial V_{BE}} \bigg|_{V_{BC}}, \quad (37)$$

$$C_{BC} = \frac{\partial Q_h}{\partial V_{BC}} \bigg|_{V_{BE}} = \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial V_{BC}} \bigg|_{V_{BE}}, \quad (38)$$

where C_{BE} is the capacitance due to a change in the electron charge Q_e , or the hole charge Q_h , caused by a small change of V_{BE} for constant V_{BC} ; C_{BC} is the capacitance due to a change in charge storage caused by a small change in V_{BC} for a specified V_{BE} . Total capacitance values C_{BE} and C_{BC} are broken into the intrinsic (under the emitter) and extrinsic region capacitance values. Total capacitance is also divided into depletion and neutral capacitance values [17, 18] as follows:

$$C = C_n + C_s, \quad (39)$$

$$C_s = -\frac{\partial}{\partial V} \int \int \rho u(\rho) dx dy, \quad (40)$$

where C_n is the neutral capacitance, C_s is the depletion capacitance, $\rho = [N_D - N_A + p - n]$ is the net charge density and $u(\rho)$ is the unit step function. Depletion and neutral capacitance terms are further broken into intrinsic and extrinsic components for the device equivalent circuit model. The gain-bandwidth product f_t is calculated by the relation

$$f_t = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\frac{\Delta I_c}{\Delta Q_h} \right), \quad (41)$$

where ΔI_c is the change in collector current and ΔQ_h is the change in the stored hole charge for a small change ΔV_{BE} from specified V_{BE} and V_{BC} operating level conditions.

• Link with MGP

As described in detail in an accompanying paper [8], information required for a device equivalent circuit model from 2DP runs for various bias conditions is saved in a dataset. The software link program MGPLINK, for the device equivalent circuit model generation program (MGP), postprocesses these data. This program also generates plots, as shown in Figs. 4–14 of this paper.

3. Bipolar transistor simulation

The use of 2DP to design and optimize new bipolar technology device structures is illustrated in the following sections. An npn transistor structure with a $1.5 \times 1.0\text{-}\mu\text{m}^2$ emitter and a $4.7 \times 1.0\text{-}\mu\text{m}^2$ base-collector region has been

terminal characteristics. In addition to terminal currents and current gain, other parameters, such as internal junction bias, sheet resistance, injection efficiency, and breakup of

• *Epitaxial doping variation*

The effect of varying the epitaxial region doping level on the device characteristics is simulated by the doping profiles shown in Figure 9. The epitaxial doping level has been

higher electron mobility.

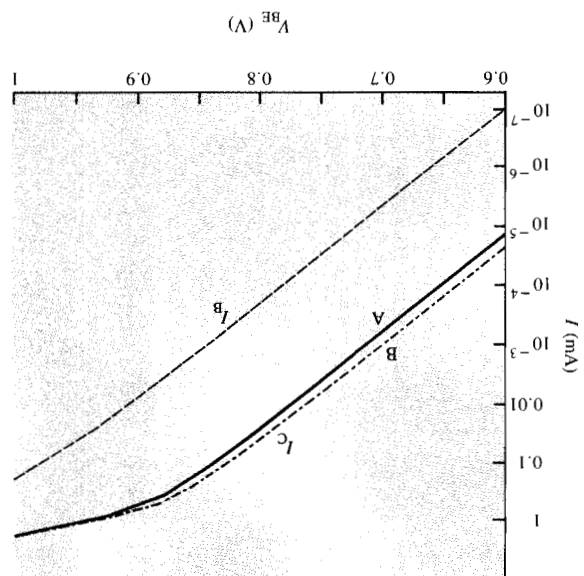
higher f_c curve due to narrower electrical basewidth and where the higher base resistivity profile corresponds to the characteristics for the two profiles are shown in Figure 8, injection dominates the built-in profile. Predicted f_c vs I_c and resistivity are smaller at higher currents since carrier Figure 7, respectively. Note that the increases in current gain intrinsic base sheet resistivity are shown in Figure 6 and reduced base doping. The increases in current gain and cases are shown in Figure 5. As expected, I_c increases with in Figure 4. Predicted I_c , I_B vs V_{BE} characteristics for these reduced by 30% are shown as curves A and B, respectively, base profiles for the original boron dose and for a dose implanted boron dose on device characteristics. Intrinsic The first example demonstrates the effect of variations in the

• *Base doping variation*

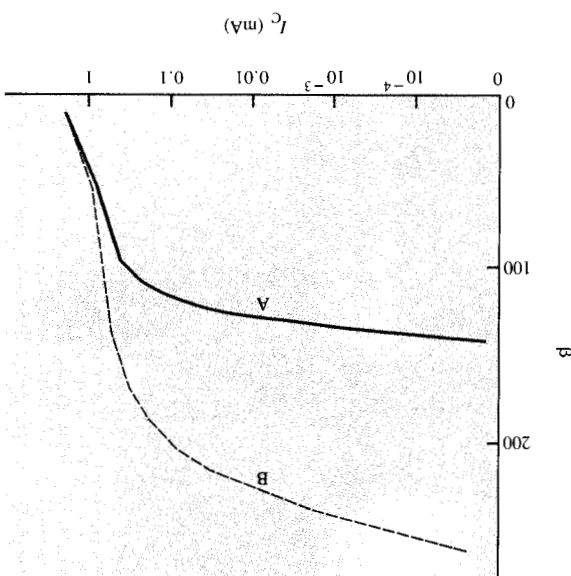
transistor.

complete the specification of doping profiles for this npn Epitaxial and subcollector region profiles are added to SAFPRO solution described in the previous paper [7]. base, and extrinsic base doping profiles are taken from a are analyzing a two-dimensional structure.) Emitter, intrinsic analyzed. (The third dimension, $1.0 \mu\text{m}$, is arbitrary since we

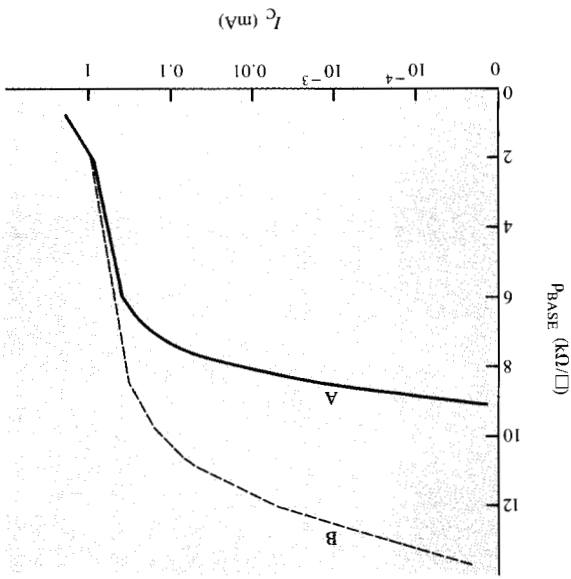
Predicted I_c and I_B as a function of V_{BE} for profiles A and B of Fig. 4.



Current gain as a function of I_c for profiles A and B of Fig. 4.



Intrinsic base sheet resistance as a function of I_c for profiles A and B of Fig. 4.



changed from $2.0 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ for profile A to $4.0 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ for profile C. Calculated emitter-base and base-collector capacitance characteristics are shown in Figure 10.

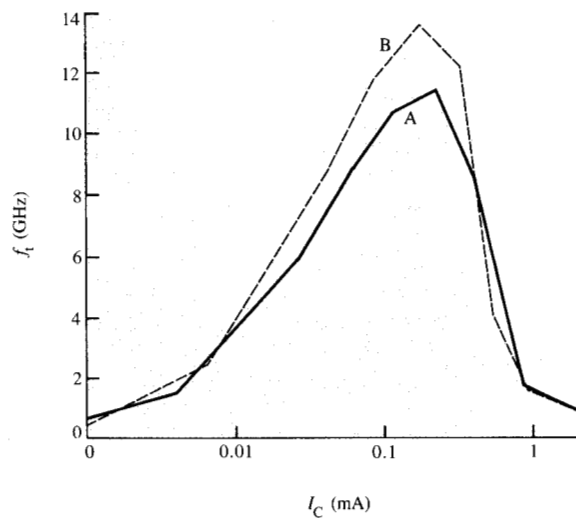


Figure 8

f_t as a function of I_C for profiles A and B of Fig. 4.

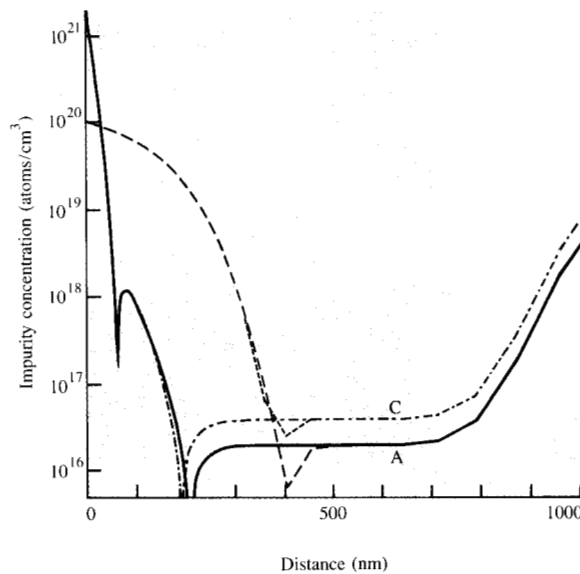


Figure 9

Vertical doping profiles for the nominal process (profile A) and for higher epitaxial region doping (profile C).

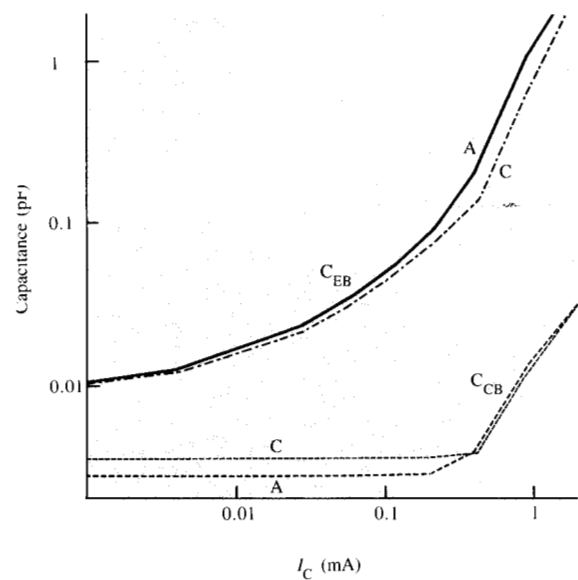


Figure 10

Emitter-base and base-collector capacitance values as a function of I_C for profiles A and C of Fig. 9.

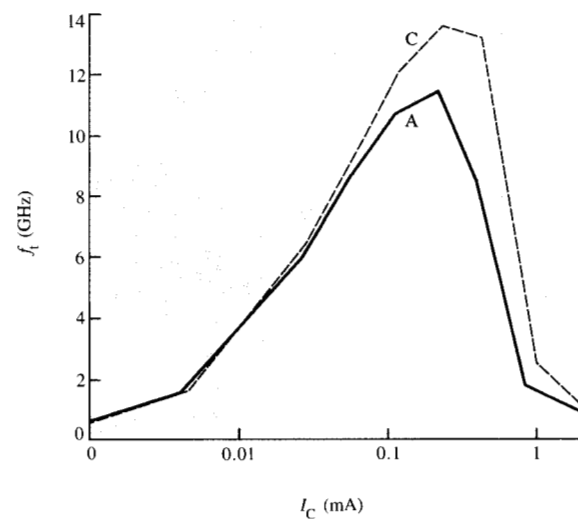


Figure 11

f_t as a function of I_C for profiles A and C of Fig. 9.

At low current levels, profile C has a higher base-collector junction depletion capacitance. However, the increase in emitter-base diffusion capacitance with increasing current level is smaller for profile C as base-widening in the epitaxial region starts at a higher current density. The effect of increased epitaxial doping is also seen in the f_t vs I_C

characteristics shown in **Figure 11**, where f_t reduction with increasing I_C is smaller for profile C compared to profile A.

• Epitaxial thickness variation

The effect of variations in the epitaxial region thickness is simulated by considering the doping profiles shown in **Figure**

The user-oriented interactive program for using 2DP was written by T. Georgen and D. Johnson during their summer

5. Acknowledgments

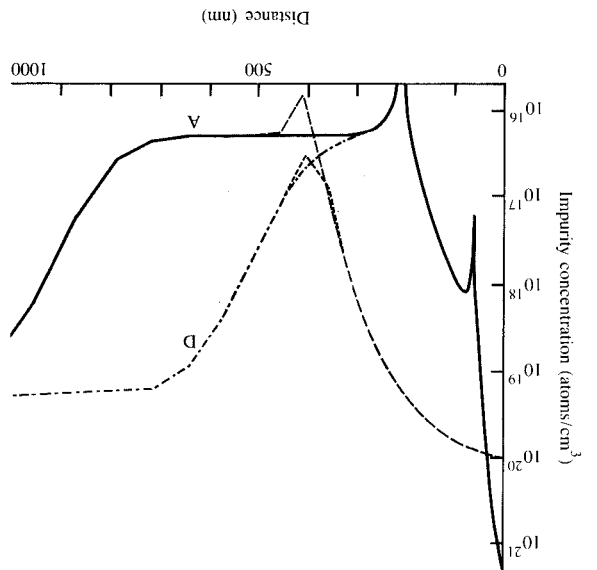
The mathematical details and the silicon material parameters used in the two-dimensional device simulation program 2DP have been presented. 2DP has been linked with the two-dimensional process simulation program SAFEPRO to automatically receive the two-dimensional doping profiles required for device characteristic simulation. It has also been linked with the device equivalent circuit model generation program to automatically transfer predicted terminal characteristics and device internal behavior required for equivalent circuit modeling. Use of 2DP to optimize bipolar technology device design and to estimate device characteristic variation due to process tolerances has also been discussed.

4. Summary

12, where epitaxial thickness has been reduced by 400 nm for profile D. Predicted capacitance characteristics are shown in Figure 13, where base-collector depletion capacitance at low current levels is increased for profile D, mainly due to the higher doping level of the extrinsic base-collector junction and reduced epitaxial thickness. Due to the reduced region for base widening at high injection levels, emitter-base diffusion capacitance is smaller for profile D at high current levels. Reduced charge storage at high injection levels for profile D also accounts for higher f_T as shown in Figure 14.

Vertical doping profile for the nominal process (profile A) and a reduced epitaxial region thickness (profile D).

Figure 12

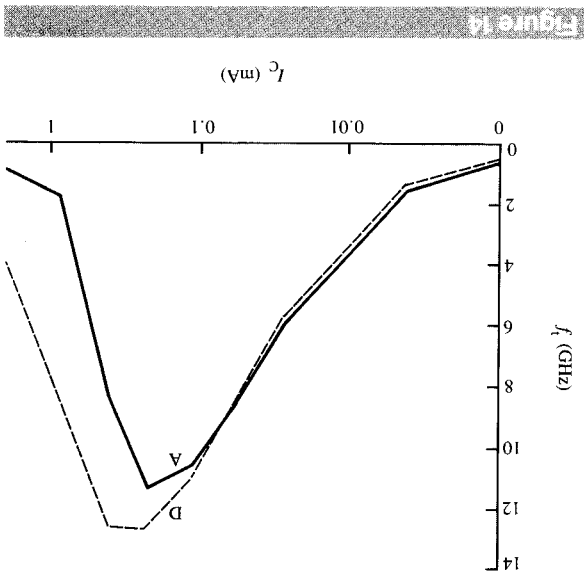


employment, with the help of R. Jones and P. Murley.

6. Appendix: List of symbols

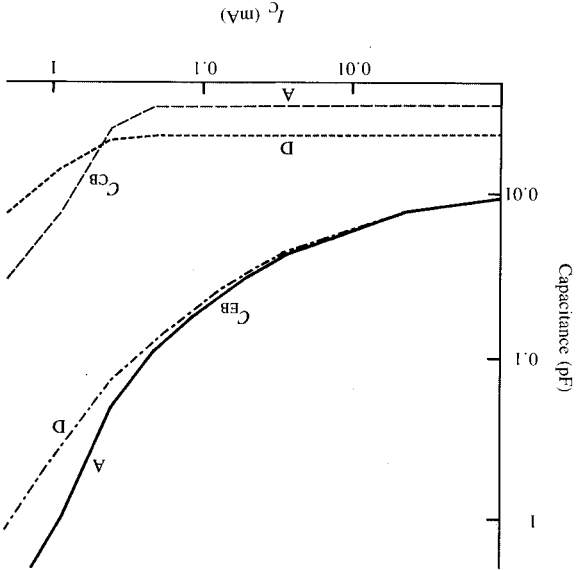
- A_n^{**} Effective Richardson constant for electrons
- A_p^{**} Effective Richardson constant for holes
- A_n Auger recombination coefficient for n-type silicon

Figure 14



Emitter-base and base-collector capacitance values as a function of I_C for profiles A and D of Fig. 12.

Figure 13



A_p	Auger recombination coefficient for p-type silicon	R_{SRH}	Shockley-Read-Hall recombination rate
C_{BC}	Base-collector capacitance	S_p	Hole surface recombination velocity at the polysilicon-silicon interface
C_{BE}	Base-emitter capacitance	T	Absolute temperature
C_n	Neutral capacitance	T_n	Temperature normalized to 300°K
C_s	Depletion capacitance	$u(x)$	Unit step function
C	Extrapolation parameter for convergence optimization		$u(x) = 1$ for $x > 0$
E	Electric field		$u(x) = 0.5$ for $x = 0$
E_c	Critical electric field		$u(x) = 0$ for $x < 0$
ΔE_c	Conduction band edge change	V_{BC}	Base-collector voltage
ΔE_c^{bt}	Conduction band edge change due to band tailing effect	V_{BE}	Base-emitter voltage
ΔE_c^{mb}	Conduction band edge change due to many-body effect	α_n	Electron ionization rate
ΔE_v	Valence band edge change	α_p	Hole ionization rate
ΔE_v^{bt}	Valence band edge change due to band tailing effect	β	Constant
ΔE_v^{mb}	Valence band edge change due to many-body effect	ϵ	Dielectric constant
ΔE_g	Bandgap change	ϕ_n	Electron quasi-Fermi potential
f_1	Gain-bandwidth product	ϕ_p	Hole quasi-Fermi potential
F_ψ	Operator for Poisson's equation	ϕ_B	Schottky barrier height
F_n	Operator for electron current continuity equation	ψ	Electrostatic potential
F_p	Operator for hole current continuity equation	μ_n	Electron mobility
G	Generation rate	μ_p	Hole mobility
I_B	Base current	ρ	Net charge density
I_C	Collector current	τ_{n0}	Electron lifetime parameter
ΔI_C	Change in collector current after a small change in bias voltage	τ_{p0}	Hole lifetime parameter
J_n	Electron-current density	References	
J_p	Hole-current density	1.	R. W. Knepper, S. P. Gaur, F.-Y. Chang, and G. R. Srinivasan, "Advanced Bipolar Transistor Modeling: Process and Device Simulation Tools for Today's Technology," <i>IBM J. Res. Develop.</i> 29 , 218-228 (1985, this issue).
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n	Mobile-electron concentration	3.	S. P. Gaur, "Two-Dimensional Analysis of High-Voltage Power Transistors," <i>IBM J. Res. Develop.</i> 21 , 306-314 (1977).
n_0	Zero bias mobile-electron concentrations	4.	S. P. Gaur, "Performance Limitations of Silicon Bipolar Transistors," <i>IEEE J. Solid-State Circuits</i> SC-14 , 337-343 (1979); also <i>IEEE Trans. Electron Devices</i> ED-26 , 415-421 (1979).
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N_D	Net donor concentration	10.	Y. J. Park, D. H. Navon, and T. W. Tang, "Monte Carlo Simulation of Bipolar Transistors," <i>IEEE Trans. Electron Devices</i> ED-31 , 1110-1116 (1984).
N_c	Effective density of states in conduction band	11.	N. D. Arora, J. R. Hauser, and D. J. Roulston, "Electron and Hole Mobilities in Silicon as a Function of Concentration and
N_v	Effective density of states in valence band		
p	Mobile-hole concentration		
p_0	Zero bias mobile-hole concentration		
$\tilde{p}^k$	Modified mobile-hole concentration at iteration step k		
p_{i0}	Intrinsic-hole concentration		
q	Electron charge		
Q_e	Total electron charge		
Q_h	Total hole charge		
ΔQ_h	Change in stored hole charge after a small change in bias voltage		
R	Recombination rate		
R_{AUGER}	Auger recombination rate		

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